



FOURTH EDITION

THE DYNAMICS OF MANAGING DIVERSITY

A CRITICAL APPROACH

GILL KIRTON & ANNE-MARIE GREENE

The Dynamics of Managing Diversity

The Dynamics of Managing Diversity was one of the first books to respond to growing academic coverage of the topic of diversity management at degree level. This fourth edition has been fully updated to reflect new working practices, statistical information, and developments in equality and diversity law, as well as including new case studies and analysis of current and emerging areas of debate in the UK and across Europe.

Diversity management is a term that covers not only race, disability and sex discrimination, but also broader issues such as individual and cultural differences. *The Dynamics of Managing Diversity*, fourth edition, provides HR and business managers of the future with the legal information and research findings to enable them to develop meaningful diversity policies in their organizations. This new edition offers:

- coverage of topical areas such as female representation on executive boards, religious diversity and economic migration following EU enlargement;
- multiple analytical perspectives, such as socio-legal and feminist approaches, to provide rich insights into the subject matter;
- practical case studies to illustrate the real-life issues in a local, international and organizational context.

Kirton and Greene present the subject of diversity management in a logical and structured manner, beginning each chapter with aims and objectives, and ending with discussion questions, making this book the perfect support resource for those teaching or studying in the field of equality and diversity.

Gill Kirton is Professor of Employment Relations at the Centre for Research in Equality and Diversity, School of Business and Management, Queen Mary University of London, UK.

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The Dynamics of Managing Diversity

A critical approach

Fourth edition

Gill Kirton and Anne-marie Greene

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Introduction – what is diversity?

AIM

- To introduce the reader to the approach and main themes of the book.

OBJECTIVES

- To outline the contexts and concepts and areas of policy and practice explored in the book.
- To provide guidance on using the book.

BACKGROUND TO THE BOOK

This is the fourth edition of *The Dynamics of Managing Diversity*, first published in 2000. The idea for writing the first edition of this book arose from one author's experiences of planning and teaching a final-year undergraduate module entitled Managing Diversity in the late 1990s. That module's aim was to provide the theoretical and conceptual underpinning necessary to understand the changing British and European contexts of workforce diversity and the changing equality and diversity policies and practices of government, organizations and human resource practitioners. Although there was a growing research-based literature contained in books and journals, students seemed to find this difficult to understand with no prior knowledge of the field. Most of the academic textbooks published in the 1990s were written by US authors and based on the North American experience of workforce diversity. These did not provide a wholly relevant backdrop for a discussion of the UK and European labour market context and approaches to policy making on diversity. Following in-depth student evaluation of the module, involving questionnaires and focus groups, the conclusion was that it was timely to write a text largely aimed at the UK student market that would situate diversity and equality debates within the context of the British and European labour markets.

We argue that it is essential to situate the analysis of equality and diversity within national contexts because different countries have different socio-political and legal climates that impact on the structure of the labour market, influence employer behaviour, and shape workers' opportunities and

constraints. The fourth edition continues with the main focus on the UK and Europe, but it widens the contextual lens somewhat to include the experience of other countries in some chapters. The book explores the employment patterns and outcomes of diverse social groups and the policies and practices of key actors in the labour market. The focus is on six dimensions of diversity: gender, race/ethnicity, disability, sexual orientation, age, and religion and belief. This fourth edition provides updated information on the labour market and legal contexts of equality and diversity and explores some of the new developments in the theory and practice of equality and diversity policy. It also contains two new chapters: Chapter 8 – *Equality and diversity policy in action*, which investigates the roles of those responsible for developing and implementing equality and diversity policy within organizations; Chapter 9 – *Diversity and organizational performance*, which examines the interconnection between workforce diversity and firm performance.

This book's primary aim is to act as a teaching and learning support to modules centred on equality, diversity or discrimination in employment and to allow students to acquire the contextual, theoretical and conceptual tools necessary to access and understand the rich variety of research-based literature that now exists in the field. It is not intended as a replacement for that literature. As is the case with any text at this level, it should be regarded as a departure point, rather than as a whole package of teaching and learning in itself. Our aim is to stimulate students' interest in this field of study by mapping the territory in an accessible manner. The further reading and references we provide should be consulted in order to deepen and broaden understanding. Feedback from previous editions indicates that the book has also proved a useful resource for academic researchers because of its synthesis and critique of the literature in the field of equality and diversity. The purpose of this introductory chapter is to introduce and summarize the main themes of the book.

WHAT IS DIVERSITY?

The concept of diversity is used in the literature in different ways, with consequences for the direction that research takes, the policies that organizations develop and our understanding of what dimensions of diversity matter for work, employment and careers. We identify three main uses of the term: (i) as a descriptor of the workforce; (ii) as a policy approach to managing the workforce; (iii) as a theoretical paradigm highlighting the significance of socio-bio-demographic differences.

Diversity as a descriptor of the workforce

Noon and Ogbonna (2001) write that diversity can be used as a neutral descriptor of variation at the workplace. As a descriptor of the workforce, diversity can refer to a huge array of differences, from those that are social group-based and therefore collective – gender, race/ethnicity, age, religion, disability, sexual orientation – to individual characteristics, including qualifications, lifestyle, personality, personal interests, talents and competences, values and beliefs, and many others. Some authors refer to visible differences, to describe what some perceive as the main social group-based differences – i.e. gender, race/ethnicity – and invisible differences, to describe individual and personal variation (e.g. Phillips et al., 2006). Others refer to surface-level diversity, to describe demographic differences such as gender and race/ethnicity, and deep-level diversity, to describe personal differences (e.g.

Harrison et al., 2002). The question that researchers (and policy makers) have to answer is what differences are they interested in and which differences do they believe matter – individual or collective? The list of possible individual characteristics that differentiate people could obviously be infinite. For the purposes of studying diversity, for managing people at the workplace or for equality and diversity policy making, it would be necessary, but difficult, to identify salient individual characteristics that require attention or action (Qin et al., 2013). Thinking about collective differences, it is quite clear that the changing demographic composition of the workforce has become a major topic of debate among academics, policy makers, human resource practitioners, trade unions and others in the UK, Europe, the US and beyond. Our argument, as we shall see in Chapter 2, is that collective (social group-based) differences are hugely consequential for the labour market and for workers. It is these differences that we believe matter most for employment experiences and outcomes and these are the ones that we are therefore interested in here. Further, we also believe that invisible differences and so-called deep-level diversity are often intricately connected to social group-based difference. For example, given the way society is structured, there is a good chance that a person's qualifications, lifestyle or interests are linked to their gender or age; that their values and opinions are influenced by their cultural (ethnic) background or religion. We argue that separating who we are, who we think we are and how we are perceived by others from major social-group (or identity) categories is actually impossible and not particularly useful for policy making and people management. Thus, the description of diversity dimensions is not merely neutral; social-group diversity matters because it somehow influences, if not defines, the relationship between the individual and others (other individuals, other groups) within a wider social web of inter-group relations that play out at the workplace and elsewhere.

Diversity as a policy approach to managing the workforce

The term *managing diversity* was popularized in the UK by the publication of Kandola and Fullerton's (1994) book aimed at human resource practitioners and managers. It advocated managing diversity as a new way forward for equality policy making. Since then many, if not most, UK organizations have either renamed their equal opportunities/equality policy or incorporated diversity into the policy title.

Equality policies have a long history in UK organizations, dating back to the early 1980s and influenced by the introduction of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 and the Race Relations Act 1976. Since then additional equality strands (disability, age, sexual orientation, and religion and belief) have been added to the characteristics protected by law and to the typical organizational policy. But the name change – from equal opportunities to diversity management – reflects a more substantive turn in thinking about the nature of the equality project, what needs to be done, why and how. Traditionally, equal opportunities policies reflected a need for legal compliance, but also a deeper moral concern for social justice which acknowledged the existence of social-group-based discrimination and disadvantage. Therefore policies were designed to protect the right of individuals not to be discriminated against, and sought to implement measures to eliminate or at least reduce disadvantage. However, one of the main criticisms of the early 1980s-style equal opportunities policies was that they were viewed by many employers and other critics as negative. Failure to comply with the law could carry penalties by way of fines imposed on employers and compensation payouts

to individuals, but organizations had to do very little to actually help promote workplace equality. There was also concern about the consequences of focusing on the negative dimensions of social group-based difference. For example, the assumption that difference inevitably equals disadvantage was said to stigmatize minority groups; the assumption that inter-group relations would necessarily be conflictual or that minorities would be discriminated against was thought to alienate dominant groups (Cockburn, 1991).

Even though advocates of diversity management do not propose abandoning the social justice principles of equal opportunities altogether, as we discuss in Chapter 5, the supposed new way forward does contain some very different principles, assumptions and ideas. The cornerstone of diversity management is the belief that it will deliver benefits to the organization, in other words that there is a business case for workforce diversity (Cornelius et al., 2001). It is argued that organizations can gain in a number of different ways from workforce diversity, and diversity policy is charged with developing initiatives to leverage the benefits. Diversity management emphasizes individual difference over social group-based difference and downplays discrimination and disadvantage, while being upbeat about the positive value of group-based difference. Without doubt this approach has a certain appeal, but it was also accused fairly early on, based on the US experience, of ‘upbeat naivety’ (Prasad et al., 1997) because of the way it de-emphasizes the conflicts, problems and dilemmas involved in implementing meaningful policies and initiatives. What the policy turn to diversity means for organizations, employment-relations actors and individuals is a major theme of the book.

Diversity as a theoretical paradigm

As a theoretical paradigm, diversity shifts towards ideas of human difference and away from the more familiar and conventional ideas of human sameness reflected in the traditional equality paradigm. Our concern in this book is with how diversity theory influences policy making at labour market and organizational levels, and in turn the consequences for collective and individual experiences of work and the workplace. In another piece we draw on political philosopher Iris Young’s (1990) work to delineate a working understanding of the politics of difference and the diversity paradigm (Greene and Kirton, 2009). Young argued that the notion of sameness was contained in the early anti-discrimination legislation of both the UK and the USA. She wrote that this approach proved limiting because it was underpinned by an assimilationist principle whereby the state and law should express rights in universal terms applied equally to all, and group-based differences, such as those based on race/ethnicity, gender and religion, should not make a difference to people’s rights and opportunities (Young, 1990: 157). While few people who seek equality would argue against this principle, Young’s critique exposes the way that the sameness or assimilationist ideal cannot actually achieve equality for socially marginalized groups. To achieve equality for all it is important, according to Young, to acknowledge and value group difference; to see the expression of difference as carrying emancipatory possibilities through the confronting and challenging of social asymmetries of power, of group domination and oppression. Young sees difference as positive, desirable and something to be embraced, rather than denied in the false hope that equality might be achieved by treating everyone the same. It is this politics of difference that informs our understanding of workforce diversity and our treatment of the material contained in this book.

THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF IDENTITY

This discussion of difference links to another major underlying theme of this book – the social construction of identity. The literature on social identity is now vast. We find Richard Jenkins' sociological framework for thinking about identity accessible and useful for addressing the questions that interest us for the purposes of this book. Jenkins acknowledges 'selfhood' – the idea that individuals are unique and variable – but he regards selfhood as socially constructed. Jenkins (2004: 17) suggests that the world as constructed and experienced by humans can be best understood as three distinct 'orders':

- '*the individual order* is the human world as made up of embodied individuals, and what-goes-on-in-their-heads'; this 'order' helps us to think about and explain why people make the career choices they do;
- '*the interactive order* is the human world as constituted in relationships between individuals, in what-goes-on-between-people'; this level of analysis focuses us on the relational, interactive aspects of working life and the way that these influence careers;
- '*the institutional order* is the human world of pattern and organization, of established-ways-of-doing-things'; this helps to shift our attention away from career decision making at a purely individual level and highlights the wider context in which individuals operate.

Within this framework, and as discussed in more detail in Chapter 3, we argue that social group membership (our gender, race, ethnicity, etc.) influences both how individuals perceive themselves and how others perceive them. This means that identity can be imposed (ascribed by others) and consciously assumed (achieved by self-identification) (Jenkins, 2004). Social identity theory states that individuals are attracted to groups that enhance their self-esteem and less attracted to groups they perceive as potentially esteem damaging. Once an individual has achieved group membership, there is a tendency to perceive groups that are different negatively and as sharing undesirable characteristics. These processes are at the root of the construction of negative stereotypes held by dominant groups of minority groups.

Gender and race are especially salient in the construction of identity, because they fix people in an immutable and (usually) visible category. Jenkins (2004) sees gender and race as primary identities. Frequently, negative stereotypes are attached to women and minority ethnic groups. Jenkins (2004: 61) argues that 'gender is one of the most consistent identificatory themes in human history, and one of the most pervasive classificatory principles – arguably, the most pervasive – with massive consequences for the life-chances and experiences of whole categories of people'. On the question of ethnicity, Jenkins holds that ethnic identity 'is often an important and early dimension of self-identification. Individuals often learn frameworks for classifying themselves and others by ethnicity and "race" during childhood. . . . Ethnicity, when it matters to people, really matters' (2004: 65). Other sources of identity are more fluid and often less visible, but not necessarily less salient, particularly for subjective employment experiences. For example, disability takes many different forms: it can be temporary or permanent; it can occur to anyone at any stage in the life course; it is infinitely graduated. Similarly, sexual orientation is not necessarily fixed, and age discrimination affects people to different extents and in different ways over the life course. It can be argued that

these other sources of identity and the experiences arising from them are mediated by gender and race. From this perspective, it follows that it is appropriate to accord more attention to issues of gender and race, as we do in this book. This is not to say that we do not believe that all sources of identity are important in contributing to who or what a person is and who or what others perceive a person to be.

THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF INEQUALITIES

Diversity and identity are both consequential for the labour market outcomes and employment experiences of individuals. Gender and race can be regarded as the major organizing principles of the labour market, with disability, age, religion and sexual orientation all being factors which also influence employment patterns and outcomes. Therefore, we can still say that these six dimensions of diversity are main sources of employment discrimination and disadvantage.

As we shall see in Chapter 2, recent official statistics reveal that women's employment is now at the highest rate ever, with more than two-thirds of working-age women with dependent children in employment. However, women remain concentrated in a fairly narrow range of sex-typed occupations and they continue to meet a glass ceiling higher up the organizational or occupational ladder. Black and minority-ethnic workers are disproportionately found in lower-skilled and lower-grade jobs. In particular, they are under-represented in senior management grades in large organizations despite increased average qualification levels. Disabled people are also over-represented in low-skilled, low-status jobs; people over 50 have more chance of being long-term unemployed and are less likely to receive training from their employers to update their skills; religious minorities and lesbians and gay men frequently encounter discrimination and harassment at the workplace.

Although our focus is on the six groups protected by law, it is important to state that class mediates these sources of discrimination; for example, it is not the case that all men are at the top and all women are at the bottom (Cockburn, 1991). The picture is far more complex than this, with educational attainment, occupation and income (proxies for class) also playing a role in determining the work opportunities and experiences of individual men and women in the UK. However, sexism and racism both cut across class, such that middle-class women and middle-class black and minority-ethnic people suffer sex and race discrimination despite their relatively privileged class position (Anthias and Yuval-Davis, 1992). Working-class women and working-class black and minority-ethnic people suffer the deprivations of their class, as well as gender- and race-specific disadvantage. As Hall (1978) put it, 'Race is the modality in which class is lived. It is also the medium in which class relations are experienced' (in Cockburn, 1991: 60). The same could be said of gender. We do not offer an explicit class analysis of inequalities, but we do acknowledge the intersection of class with the other sources of labour market disadvantage we concentrate on. We start from the position that certain groups of people enter employment and organizations already disadvantaged by wider social inequalities as reflected in, for example, the education system. The discrimination they meet in employment reinforces their disadvantaged position and militates against their career progress.

Let us briefly consider why these patterns of inequality exist (discussed in detail in Chapter 3). One view drawn from neo-classical economics is that employment outcomes (e.g. pay, status or type of occupation) simply reflect a combination of individual merit, preferences and choices. So, for

example, this perspective would posit that higher numbers of women compared with men choose to go into primary school teaching or nursing knowing that the pay is relatively poor, because they prefer to work in nurturing and caring roles. Another argument is that inequalities exist because the capitalist system of production is based on the principles of market competition, which inherently creates winners and losers in order to provide sources of cheap labour.

The different explanations have implications for the nature and content of equality and diversity policies. For example, should we develop policies to ensure more diverse representation in management, or should we assume that some people (women?) prefer to stay at the lower end of the job hierarchy, perhaps so that they can balance (low stress, low responsibility) paid work with family commitments? If the market creates a competition, surely the most able will win, so why should we create policies to give some groups a helping hand? The concern from an equality and diversity perspective is that people are not always able to exercise *free* choice. For example, throughout the developed world society does expect women to take primary responsibility for the family and this gendered ideology influences the behaviour of institutions, organizations and individual women and men. Further, winners and losers in the labour market competition are not randomly distributed throughout the working-age population; rather, they are concentrated in certain segments of the population. The six groups we identify – women, black and minority-ethnic people, certain religious minorities, disabled people, older people, and lesbians and gay men – are often the ‘losers’ in the competitive market and an ideal of social justice would demand that we are concerned about this. An alternative, sociological explanation is that employment discrimination and patterns of inequality do not simply happen; they occur because of the actions of organizations and individuals and therefore are not inevitable or insurmountable. From this point of view, policy making can make a difference. For example, if hospital doctors worked shorter, more family-friendly hours, perhaps more women would choose to become doctors rather than nurses. One of the problems inherent in traditional approaches to equality policy is that social group membership is usually conceptualized in juxtaposition to the dominant majority group, which is usually the white, non-disabled, heterosexual male. This means that, for example, men’s employment and career patterns are taken as the desirable norm against which women are judged. Therefore if women are unable to work long hours because of family responsibilities, they can expect to experience career setbacks. The question for policy makers is how organizations can change to become more inclusive of diverse groups.

FOCUSING ON THE UK AND EUROPEAN DIVERSITY CONTEXTS

There are salient differences in the political, social, economic, legal and historical contexts of different countries and these differences shape employment policy and practice at macro labour market and organizational levels, as well as impacting on the employment patterns and experiences of diverse social groups. Consequently, we argue that the study of workforce diversity must be spatially contextualized if the patterns and experiences uncovered are to be understood correctly. We have chosen to situate our discussion of equality and diversity largely within the UK and European contexts.

In contrast, much of the diversity literature still emanates from the USA and, whilst that literature can be useful for conceptual and theoretical debates, it is important to recognize that the discussion takes place within very different political, social, economic, legal and historical contexts. Because of

contextual differences, the concerns of policy makers in the USA are not entirely transferable to the UK or other countries. For instance, with a larger black and minority-ethnic population and a long history of slavery and racial segregation, US policy makers have historically paid more attention than many European countries to redressing racial disadvantage, partly in an attempt to avoid outbreaks of civil disturbance. This has been done via policies such as *affirmative action* (proactive equal-opportunity employment measures) set against the past denial of civil rights for the black population and the perceived need to put right the wrongs of the past (Edwards, 1995).

Within the UK the growth of a multiracial society has more recent origins in post-war, government-sponsored immigration and although the black and minority-ethnic share of the working-age population is growing, overall the size of the working-age population is decreasing. Whilst we can observe black and minority-ethnic employment gaps in the UK labour market, the origins of disadvantage are rather different from the US context and the consequences and solutions are therefore not perceived as identical. For example, in the UK a more liberal, less interventionist policy approach has been taken and the legislation allows little room for *positive discrimination* (the policy equivalent of the US's affirmative action).

Another important difference between the US and UK contexts is the circumstances surrounding the emergence of the diversity discourse. In the US, the seemingly less threatening diversity discourse has come to the fore because of backlash and resistance to affirmative action programmes. Critics of affirmative action programmes argued that preferential policies violated the rights of others (members of dominant groups) to positions under the merit principle (Edwards, 1995: 179). There was also concern that the wrong people were paying the costs of past discriminatory practice; for example, it was argued by some, especially in the popular media, that white American men could not get good-quality jobs (Edwards, 1995: 184). This was certainly a spurious (even mischievous) claim, lacking empirical support, but it was nevertheless powerful enough to allow the less threatening and less controversial diversity paradigm to emerge. With their emphasis on valuing individual difference and downplaying group-based difference, diversity policies do not seek to engineer employment outcomes for particular social groups in the way that affirmative action does, and diversity management therefore may win the approval of white American males. In the UK, whilst the less threatening nature of diversity management undoubtedly appeals to many policy makers, it emanates more from the widespread perceived need to link equality objectives to broader business and organizational objectives. It is argued that failure to do so has been one of the key weaknesses of traditional equal-opportunities policies. Our examination of the macro and micro structures of inequality and the theoretical explanations is situated within debates about equality and diversity and whether recognition and celebration of workforce diversity offer a new way forward in policy terms. Our reading of the existing research-based literature leads us to a rather negative conclusion on this point. As shown in Chapters 5 and 9, most academic commentators remain sceptical about the business case for diversity and its ability to deliver equality for all. The business case is seen by critics as partial and contingent on the situation of different industries and organizations. We cannot escape the fact that many organizations can meet their objectives either without workforce diversity or without actually *valuing* diversity. Therefore, we and other critics of diversity believe that it is necessary to continue to recognize inequalities and to develop policies to redress discrimination and disadvantage. Thus, it remains important for diversity policies to grow from and onto existing equality policies, rather than replace them.

THE BOOK'S CONTENTS

The book is divided into two parts. Part One – Context and concepts – situates equality and diversity within the UK and European employment contexts. It also explores theoretical explanations for workforce diversity and labour market inequalities, and presents conceptual frameworks for understanding equality and diversity policies.

Chapter 2 provides a detailed picture of the UK and European employment contexts for understanding workforce diversity. It examines employment patterns at the macro labour market level of the main social groups that are the book's focus – women; black and minority-ethnic people; religious minorities; older workers; disabled people; lesbians and gay men. Examples of cross-European similarities and differences are given throughout the chapter. *Chapter 3* aims to provide the necessary conceptual and theoretical underpinning to develop a critical analysis of the employment patterns and gaps outlined in Chapter 2. It presents the main theoretical explanations for employment segregation and labour market disadvantage and provides a critical analysis of these theoretical explanations, highlighting strengths and weaknesses. This includes discussion of neo-classical economic theories, including human capital theory and explanations drawn from social identity and feminist theory. *Chapter 4* shifts the level of analysis to the workplace. It considers how and why the broader labour market patterns described in Chapter 2 are reflected and reproduced in organizations and careers. It uses the concept of inequality regimes as an analytical lens and unpacks diversity issues, with separate sections on: gender, race/ethnicity, religion, disability, age and sexual orientation. *Chapter 5* presents the chronological developments in the meaning and understanding of different approaches to equality and diversity policy. It provides an analysis of similarities and differences between 'equal opportunities' and 'diversity management'. This includes critical analysis of key contributions such as Jewson and Mason's liberal and radical approaches to equal opportunities, Young's politics of difference, and Liff's typology of diversity approaches.

Part Two – Policy and practice – explores approaches to equality and diversity policy and practice. It considers the role of key actors in both perpetuating and seeking to challenge disadvantage and discrimination in employment.

Chapter 6 primarily focuses on anti-discrimination law in the British context, but this discussion is located within the broader European legal context. It describes the requirements relating to the six strands covered by British equality legislation: sex, race, disability, sexual orientation, age, and religion and belief. Particular attention is paid to the public sector equality duty and to the debate surrounding positive action. The chapter provides a critical evaluation of British equality law and considers its limitations for advancing workplace equality. Methods of redress for individual employees who have faced discrimination are also considered. *Chapter 7* explores the role for trade unions in advancing and championing workplace equality and diversity. The context and climate for unions in the contemporary labour market are briefly outlined, followed by a close examination of unions' equality campaigning and bargaining activity. The chapter considers the relationship between internal union inequalities (i.e. under-representation of women and other minority groups in leadership and decision making) and externally facing equality activity. It also engages with how contemporary diversity policies impact on unions, discussing the extent to which the concept, policy and practice of diversity management assists or hinders unions in their equality objectives. *Chapter 8* explores contemporary policy making and the roles of those responsible for developing and implementing

equality and diversity policy within organizations. There is discussion of what the work of diversity specialists, diversity champions and consultants and line managers involves. This chapter also provides examples of what equality and diversity policies typically look like within organizations, together with illustrations of best-practice guidance on policy initiatives. *Chapter 9* explores the interconnections between workforce diversity and organizational performance by critically examining theoretical and empirical research relating to the business case for diversity. It considers the strength of the evidence for the claim that creativity, innovation and competitive advantage are enhanced by diversity. It also explores the impact of diversity at corporate board level and at work group and team levels, the social processes of diversity and their impact on work relations. *Chapter 10* discusses the European context of diversity, looking at examples of countries where significant developments in equality and diversity policy have occurred. The importance of social policy in promoting equality and diversity is highlighted (i.e. welfare systems, immigration and citizenship policies). Key areas of current topical interest are also discussed, including: critical analysis of recent legislative developments on quotas for women on executive boards; economic migration within the EU, particularly following EU enlargement and migration from Central and Eastern European countries. *Chapter 11*, the concluding chapter, provides a summary of the issues covered in Chapters 2–10, demonstrating how they interconnect. The concluding discussion places diversity as a global phenomenon and provides an assessment of how the diversity paradigm is able to address inequalities and disadvantage in the labour market.

USING THE BOOK

This book aims to support a programme of teaching and learning and to provide a critical review of the literature in the field. As stated above, we seek to map the territory of equality and diversity and thereby provide a solid basis for students to progress to research-based texts and articles. With this aim in mind, we have attempted to achieve an appropriate balance between description and analysis. Description is essential to any ‘mapping’ exercise, whilst analysis is necessary to make sense of the landscape depicted. Our intention is to have provided relevant information and engaged critically with different arguments. What we hope to have produced is a valuable resource for students and academics which will underpin their study in the field.

We believe it would be wrong to claim academic writing as entirely objective and unbiased. Our choice of literature sources inevitably reflects our own beliefs and values, as is the case with any academic text or textbook. However, we consider alternative and competing perspectives and understandings of the social phenomena we describe and analyse. We do not always draw firm conclusions from our discussions and we do not make recommendations; rather, we leave it to readers to make up their own minds based on the information we present. However, although we do not make explicit recommendations, clear and fairly transparent implications can be drawn from the overall content of the book for readers with a vocational or practitioner orientation. In addition, the concluding chapter offers some reflections on the future of equality and diversity debates.

Each chapter opens with an overall aim and a set of objectives to inform the reader of the content of the chapter and to indicate what the chapter is attempting to achieve. Key learning points are provided at the end of each section within chapters. These summarize and draw out the principal

messages of the section. The review and discussion questions at the end of each chapter will encourage further reading, reflection and discussion. The questions can be used by students working alone, in study groups, or in seminar sessions. The suggested reading we provide for each chapter will help those discussions to be more in-depth and fruitful. As is the case with any such questions, they can be treated simply as checks on understanding of the content of a chapter, or subjected to debate and analysis. Some of the review and discussion questions lend themselves to essay questions – we leave this to tutors' discretion. We also provide learning activities within each chapter. These are intended to provide 'real life' examples and to develop students' analytical abilities by requiring that the themes of the chapter be reflected upon in order to understand, interpret and analyse the situations in the activity. Again, these short activities can be attempted by students working independently of classes, or within seminar sessions. At the end of the book there is a glossary of terms and abbreviations for key concepts. There is also an index of authors and topics, which will assist readers in searching for information.

Although we believe the chapters are organized in a logical sequence, each one can also be read in isolation from the preceding and following chapters. Therefore, there is a high degree of flexibility in how students and tutors and other readers approach the topics covered by the book. In any subject field with a large literature, it is always necessary for authors to make decisions about what to include and what to exclude. This book is no different and doubtless there are omissions, which can be remedied by wider reading and by tutor input.

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